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# CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

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## IN THIS ISSUE:

- Status, Problems and Potential of Teaching
- Comparison of Otis and Stanford-Binet IQ's
- Exploration of Mexican-American Drop-outs
- Manifest Anxiety Scale in a Junior High
- Development of a School Discipline Policy



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Published by the CALIFORNIA TEACHERS ASSOCIATION for the  
CALIFORNIA ADVISORY COUNCIL ON EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

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## THE EDITORS SAY: \_\_\_\_\_

### A New Year's Resolution

January 1 is a special date. It is the start of a New Year. It is the day to make New Year's resolutions. It is the time to put aside the shortcomings and delinquencies of past years and to approach the new year with higher ideals and renewed vigor. Unfortunately, permanent alterations to our way of life are rarely accomplished by vows alone. So, when the next New Year's Day arrives, we need to remake the same proposals, the same pledges, and the same resolutions. A year has elapsed, but nothing really has been done to alleviate our problems.

Organizations, perhaps, should make New Year's resolutions, but they rarely do. They do, however, take actions which will help in solving their problems. One such recent act may be considered a New Year's pledge, since it occurred approximately with the advent of 1961. Although the press did not herald it, the ratification of a CASA-CTA agreement for joint research activities might be the most fruitful action taken at the December conference of the California Association of School Administrators in Long Beach.

California educators perennially have been faced with numerous requests for information. Educators frequently have expressed a need for a system of data-gathering and information-sharing on problems of concern to the profession. Requests for information ought to be coordinated and unified so that complete and accurate coverage results. At the same time, district officials need to be relieved of myriad demands for the same data. Equally important has been the lack of a single research information service which could serve as a unified agency for requesting data and act as a clearing house for disseminating information on California education.

The CASA-CTA joint research activities agreement essentially corrects these problems. It should be noted, however, that the agreement provides only for cooperation. The sovereignty of both organizations is fully protected, and in no way affects policies and practices of either with respect to matters other than research. The two groups believe that well-conceived, honest research will obtain the necessary facts for objective findings. The use of these findings and the formulation of recommendations based on them will remain the function of the various agencies of the two associations.

The agreement, then, is one that will provide a more complete gathering of data, reduce the number of spurious questionnaires, and make available the results of past and future studies. Admittedly, it is just a beginning—but a notable one. The concurrence is more of a "meeting of the minds." It is not sweeping or comprehensive. Yet, it is a step in the right direction.

Conceivably, this action could be a significant New Year's resolution which will eventually provide a necessary pattern for cooperative research in California education.—JHB

# A Survey and Analysis of the Status, Problems And Potential of Teaching as a Profession

ARNOLD W. WOLPERT

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the present status of teaching as a profession and to contribute toward its further development. The study included an analysis of the characteristics of professions, an evaluation of teaching against those characteristics, assessment of the suitability of teaching's professional aspiration, validation of the predictions for a significantly higher status, analysis of deficiencies or obstacles which seriously deter teaching's further professional development, evaluation of present corporate activities in relationship to those obstacles, assessment of the professional readiness to undertake vigorous programs calculated to overcome deficiencies or obstacles, and assessment of leadership responsibilities in making such an effort.

## Procedure

The study included a survey of written material on the subject of professionalism in general and the status and problems of teaching in particular. From the survey of related literature there was produced a list of suggested characteristics of professions, outcomes to be anticipated, and alleged obstacles. This list was submitted to a group of 143 experts on the subject of professionalism. Persons were judged to be expert in the field if they had been successful in getting into legitimate print on the subject. That list was augmented by recommendations from responsible leaders in the professions of teaching, the ministry, medicine, law, architecture, engineering, nursing, and accounting. Ninety-two of the 105 returned questionnaires were used in the final compilation.

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*Arnold Wolpert serves as West Coast representative of the National Education Association, with offices in the CTA building in Burlingame. He came to this post three years ago, after serving as field representative for the California Teachers Association for six years and as a high school social science teacher for ten years. Dr. Wolpert, co-author of Teaching in California, obtained his doctor of education degree in 1960 from the University of Southern California. This article is a digest of his doctoral dissertation.*

The experts were requested to do four things: (1) Select the salient characteristics of professions; (2) Indicate the obstacles which seriously deter teaching's professional development; (3) Validate suggested outcomes of a higher professional status for teaching; and (4) Assign responsibility roles to various organizations and agencies in the field of education.

The findings from the returned questionnaires were incorporated into a second instrument, which was designed to assess teaching in terms of professional characteristics and at the same time to evaluate current professional service programs of corporate agencies within the profession. This second questionnaire was submitted to 72 national and California leaders in education, and 58 of the 60 returned questionnaires were included in the final tabulation.

A third instrument was designed to evaluate present service programs of the organized profession and to measure the readiness of the profession to move into the areas of need which the first group of experts had noted. Three representative groups from the teaching profession were selected: state and national leaders in education; local teacher association leaders; and rank-and-file non-active members.

## Findings of Study

There are no absolute criteria which separate professions from lesser occupations. There are, however, certain characteristics which are primary to professions and which can be used to assess the maturity of any profession.

1. Of the characteristics primary to professions, teaching is judged by experts to perform very well on:
  - a. performing an unique, essential social service;
  - b. emphasizing intellectual techniques;
  - c. requiring specific skills and abilities not generally possessed;
  - d. commanding a systematized body of knowledge;
  - e. emphasizing service above self-interest.
2. Teaching is judged to perform fairly well on:
  - a. being served by a comprehensive, independent, self-governing organization of practitioners;
  - b. requiring extended, specialized, scholarly training;
  - c. official, discriminating admission of practitioners;
  - d. demanding continual in-service growth.
3. Teaching performs less than fairly well on:
  - a. according autonomy to the individual practitioner and to the profession as a whole;



- b. requiring acceptance of personal responsibility by the practitioner;
- c. assuming a collective responsibility for the quality and improvement of the professional service;
- d. developing and enforcing a code of ethics;
- e. maintaining professional confidence about clients and service contacts;
- f. developing professional morale and mutual practitioner respect.

4. Teaching performs very inadequately in setting and enforcing practitioner standards for professional service.

5. Teaching, while recognized as a profession, is urged by experts to seek status among top-ranking professions. A vigorous effort to this end by the organized teaching profession is supported as being desirable, timely, and necessary.

6. Outcomes predicted by experts to result from or accompany a significantly improved status for teaching include:

- a. improved educational services;
- b. improved practitioner perquisites;
- c. greater demands on practitioner talent and abilities;
- d. greater individual and corporate authorities and responsibilities;
- e. greater stability of the profession;
- f. improved public confidence and respect.

7. Higher status can be achieved only through the energetic efforts of teachers individually and of their corporate agencies. Authorities assigned top leadership roles to national or state teacher organizations; slightly lesser roles to teacher education faculties and administrative and supervisory personnel. State departments of education, local teacher associations, special interest/subject matter organizations, and research agencies were assigned strong supportive roles. School trustees, legislatures, and the general public were directed by experts to sympathetically support the efforts of teachers to raise the status of their profession.

8. The basic framework of teacher organizations (national, state, and local) must assume a dual function: the improvement of educational services and the advancement of the enlightened self-interest of practitioners. These two concerns are mutually interdependent.

9. Teaching's most serious specific deficiencies or obstacles to higher professional status include:

- a. persistence of a craft/civil service concept rather than the development of a genuine professional consciousness;

- b. lack of professional solidarity;
  - c. the instability of the teaching group;
  - d. reluctance to define and enforce standards of competent service;
  - e. reluctance to raise standards of preparation, accreditation, and certification;
  - f. reluctance to recruit selectively and credential discriminately;
  - g. reluctance to develop and enforce standards of ethics;
  - h. reluctance to utilize new research findings and espouse the spirit and method of scholarship;
  - i. failure to establish membership standards in order to distinguish between the competent and the unqualified;
  - j. the slow development of coordinated corporate agencies with real strength and authority.
10. Problems relating to the organization of education as a public service governed by law and through public representatives include:
- a. the issuance of sub-standard credentials;
  - b. poor operational procedures within school districts;
  - c. failure to achieve adequate perquisites and security provisions to stimulate growth;
  - d. inadequate or unbalanced involvement of the public;
  - e. inadequate public understanding and appreciation of teachers and teaching.
11. The factors over which teachers have little influence or control constitute minor rather than serious obstacles.
12. Present corporate agencies' programs relating to these obstacles are acceptable to practitioners, but lack the desired vigor or directness.
13. Teachers generally, policy and staff leaders of the teaching profession, and authorities on the subject of professionalism are in substantial agreement on the task that confronts teaching in its efforts to improve its status, on the importance of making that effort with vigor, on the specific obstacles to be overcome and on the responsibility roles of various agencies and groups.

## Conclusions

1. Teaching has not yet achieved professional status commensurate with the fundamental importance of its service.

2. Quality of service and professional status are interrelated and mutually interdependent.

3. Significantly higher professional status for teaching can be achieved only through the enlightened efforts of teachers, individually and through their corporate agencies.

4. Practitioners will support more vigorous, more explicit efforts to the extent that they understand their significance and are assured of the desired outcomes.

5. Significantly higher professional status can be achieved by strengthening efforts to (a) develop consciousness as a profession, (b) define and protect professional autonomies and authorities, (c) develop and enforce minimum standards for competent service, (d) observe and enforce ethical standards, (e) develop higher standards for selection, preparation, and admission to teaching, (f) secure procedures and perquisites more conducive to quality service, (g) expand and utilize the science of pedagogy, and (h) develop more effective corporate agencies for the profession.

## Recommendations

The organized teaching profession, primarily with leadership at the national level, needs to move vigorously to stimulate or to initiate the following:

1. Preservice and in-service education of teachers should stress the nature, processes, and responsibilities of professionalism.

2. A specific program of defining and protecting areas of professional autonomy should be undertaken.

3. A quality of service commission should be created to develop and enforce standards of minimum competency.

4. A program of evaluating and accrediting public school systems should be undertaken.

5. A nonlegal national professional teaching certificate should be made available to qualified career teachers.

6. A single code of ethics for all practitioners should be developed and enforced.

7. A pedagogical research service should be created to digest and disseminate important new research on the science of teaching.

8. Standards for organizational affiliation should be set and observed.

9. The profession should undertake a continuing study of development of teaching as a profession.

# Comparison of Otis and Stanford-Binet IQ's

HELEN ERSKINE ROBERTS

The possibility that the intelligence quotient obtained on the Otis Quick-Scoring Tests might be a serious underestimate of the intellectual capacity of a student arose when an all-A student wished to apply for a scholarship to an outstanding college. Since the Otis IQ of 119 on the school records was not in agreement either with the school marks of the student or the teachers' appraisal of the boy, an individual Stanford-Binet was administered to him. The boy answered every item on the test correctly and earned the highest IQ possible for his age, 152. The excellent record made by this young man in an Ivy League university is further confirmation that the comparatively low Otis IQ was not a correct estimate of his ability.

Many similar cases were found during a survey of the gifted children in the public schools of Connecticut (6). For example, a ninth-grade girl with an Otis IQ of 139 tested 172 on the Stanford-Binet, and a boy with a Kuhlmann-Anderson IQ of 109 earned 142 on the Stanford-Binet. So numerous were such cases and so great the discrepancies between individual and group test scores that the chairman of a Connecticut committee studying problems related to gifted children said, *"To tag a child for life with an IQ, figured not to the nearest ten but to an exact digit, on the basis of a group test that was designed for rough screening, may turn out to have been criminal; it's a good way, often, to kill gifts"* (6:19).

Psychologists recommend that caution be used when interpreting any intelligence test. Both Vernon (11) and Super (10) have pointed out that the IQ depends on the test used. They stress the need for teachers to take into account the lack of equivalence of IQ's obtained from different tests.

There is widespread agreement among psychologists that the most reliable estimate of a child's rate of mental growth can be obtained only when the child is tested individually by a competent tester. Some of the factors that

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*Helen Erskine Roberts is currently a teacher and guidance director at Julian Union High School in San Diego County. Her former teaching experience includes Los Angeles City Schools, 1937 to 1960, and Detroit, Michigan, schools prior to that time. In addition, Mrs. Roberts worked under a fellowship of the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation, 1953-54, and was analyst and reporter for the Connecticut Committee for the Gifted in 1955-56. Mrs. Roberts obtained her Ed.D. and M.A. degrees from the University of California, Los Angeles.*

cause students to do less well on group than on individual tests are noted by Vernon (11), Fromm (4), Miner (5), Eells (2), and Stroud (9). These factors are: lack of reading proficiency, inability to work rapidly, inhibiting emotions, such as shyness and fear, and indifference to the test results because of feelings of hopelessness and inferiority related to social class.

In order to establish reasonably "true" IQ's for the 84 students selected for the present study, the Stanford-Binet individual test of intelligence, Form L, was administered. Among those who have indicated that this test is a reliable and clinically useful instrument are Cronbach (1), Freeman (3), and Fromm (4). The decision to use the Stanford-Binet for the individual tests was reinforced by the fact that this was the test adopted for use in the California Pilot Study of the Gifted, after the experimental use of the Wechsler tests and the Stanford-Binet.

In addition to the Otis IQ's, there were available the scores earned by the students on the Iowa Tests of Educational Development, Form Y3. The nine tests had been given on three successive days to students in their home-room groups, where rapport was excellent, just as it is when an individual test is administered successfully.

Subjects for the study were selected from the students whose Iowa scores were above the 90th percentile, on the assumption that these might be considered bright students. This is supported by the reports of Romanowski and Stegeman that students who earn high scores on the Iowa tests tend to do well on the College Entrance Examination tests and on the National Merit tests (7,8).

The findings reported in this paper should serve to confirm the statements that scores on individual intelligence tests tend to be considerably higher than those obtained on group tests.

Eighty-four students in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades of a Los Angeles City high school were selected for the study. For the sample, 109 boys and 87 girls who had earned scores at or above the 90th percentile on the Iowa Tests of Educational Development were identified. As there were 540 boys and 895 girls in the school, 20 per cent of the boys and 10 per cent of the girls had scores above the ninetieth percentile. On the other hand, proportionately more girls than boys had high grade-point averages. The marks earned by the students during the preceding semester in all subjects except physical education were used to compute these averages. Students whose averages were 3.5 and above were considered as high achievers, while those with averages of 2.5 and below were considered low achievers. Of those who scored above the 90th percentile on the Iowa tests, 34 boys (31 per cent) and 15 girls (18 per cent) were low achievers, and 30 boys (27 per cent) and 22 girls (25 per cent) were high achievers.

In order to secure equal samples of boys and girls, the examiner drew four names to be dropped from the group of low-achieving boys and seven names to be dropped from the group of high-achieving girls. As the study

progressed, one high-achieving boy and one low-achieving girl left school, and one other girl who had low marks refused to participate in the study. As a result, the number of students who were given individual intelligence tests was reduced from the anticipated 90 to 84, divided as shown in Table I.

TABLE I  
Number of Students Included in the Study

	<i>Below 2.5</i>	<i>Above 3.5</i>	<i>Totals</i>
10th grade			
Boys	11	11	22
Girls	6	6	12
11th grade			
Boys	11	11	22
Girls	3	3	6
12th grade			
Boys	7	7	14
Girls	4	4	8
	<hr/> 42	<hr/> 42	<hr/> 84

## Tests Compared

A Stanford-Binet individual intelligence test was given to each student during the fall semester. In order to prevent variations in the students' IQ's caused by the personalities of different examiners, the same psychometrist gave the Binet to every student in the study. Rapport in all cases was good or excellent, and the IQ's obtained probably represent a fairly accurate estimate of the potential ability of the students.

Comparisons were made between the Otis and Stanford-Binet IQ's, between the Iowa scaled scores and the Otis IQ's, and between the Iowa scaled scores and the Binet IQ's. Pearson *r* correlations were computed for the above tests, as well as the *r* for IQ intervals on the Stanford-Binet as compared with the Otis. Means of the differences between the two intelligence tests were computed, including means of the differences for IQ intervals.

## Results of Study

The results confirm the statement that the IQ's obtained on individual intelligence tests are higher than those obtained on the Otis group tests. Only one subject had a lower Stanford-Binet IQ than Otis IQ, having 128 on the Otis and 126 on the Binet. All other subjects had Binet IQ's three to thirty-one points higher than their Otis IQ's, with a mean difference of

15.6. In two of the grades the mean difference between the group and individual IQ's of the low achievers was larger than that of the high achievers. See Table II.

However, there was some correlation between the Binet and Otis IQ's since the  $r$  was .60, in spite of negative correlations at several IQ bands, as shown in Table III.

TABLE II  
Mean Difference Between Binet and Otis IQ's

Grade	Below 2.5	Above 3.5
10th	17.05	16.9
11th	12.0	14.3
12th	16.5	16.0

TABLE III  
Correlation Between Otis and Binet by IQ Bands

IQ	N	r
140-144	17	.06
135-139	11	.41
130-134	22	-.12
125-129	18	-.24
120-124	10	-.01

TABLE IV  
Correlations Between Otis and Binet by Grade Levels

Grade	N	r
10th	34	.65
11th	28	.70
12th	22	.35

Although the  $r$  of .41 at the band 135-139 is small, it may be a slight confirmation of Vernon's statement that high scores on group tests are relatively stable and significant (11:169). Furthermore, of the six individuals who had IQ's above 130 on the Otis, one had a Binet IQ above 135, two above 140, two above 145, and one above 150.

Correlations by grade levels are given in Table IV.

Vernon's statement that low scores may arise from many sources other than lack of intelligence was illustrated in the examinations. One extremely tense boy whose Otis IQ was 113 obtained a Binet of 142. Another, so nervous that he had developed an ulcer, had an Otis of 118 and a Binet of 134. A girl described by her teachers as a "bundle of nerves" had a Binet of 143, 27 points higher than her Otis. An outstanding athlete with fingernails chewed to the quick had an Otis IQ of 102 and a Binet of 123.

The means of the differences between the Binet and Otis IQ's at the various IQ bands were computed and gave the results shown in Table V.

TABLE V  
Means of Differences Between Binet and Otis IQ's

<i>IQ</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>
150-154	1	(18)
145-149	3	17.00
140-144	17	19.64
135-139	11	20.18
130-134	22	14.09
125-129	18	13.15
120-124	10	10.80
115-119	2	9.00

TABLE VI  
Correlations Between Iowa Scores and Otis and Binet

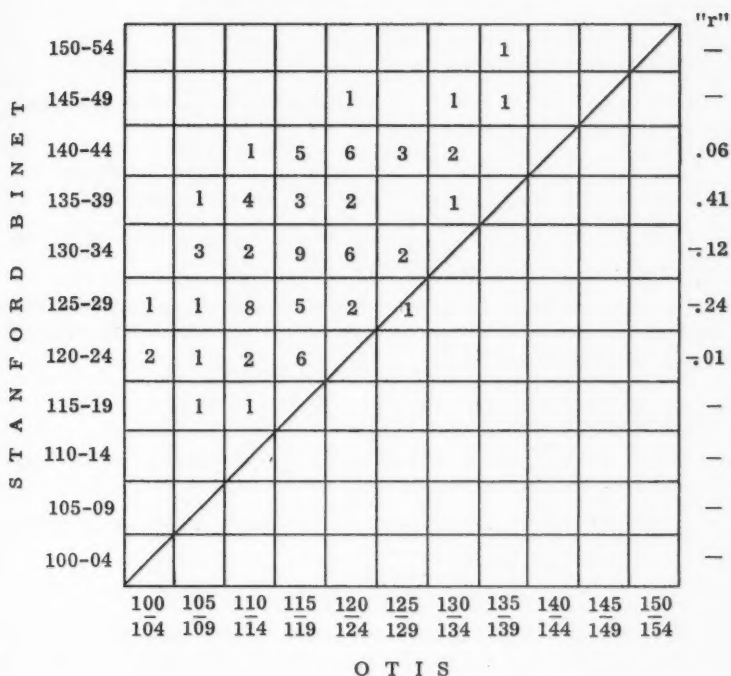
<i>Grade</i>	<i>Otis vs. Iowa</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Binet vs. Iowa</i>
	<i>r</i>		<i>r</i>
10th	.72	34	.65
11th	.72	28	.78
12th	.54	22	.52
All	.70	84	.65

Studies were made of the correlation between the Iowa scaled composite scores and Otis IQ's and between the Iowa scores and Binet IQ's. The correlation between the Otis and the Iowa was .70, and the correlation for the Binet and Iowa was .65. An analysis of these correlations by grades is shown in Table VI.

Although the correlation coefficient between Otis IQ's and Iowa scores was slightly higher than that between the Binet IQ's and Iowa scores, 22 of the students who earned high scores on the Iowa had Otis IQ's of only



Comparison of Binet and Otis IQ's



110 to 124. On the other hand, all but 12 of the students who had scores above the 90th percentile on the Iowa had Binet IQ's above 125, and 12 of the students who had Iowa scores above 30 had Binet IQ's above 135. The one individual who had the high score of 29 on the Iowa but a Binet IQ of only 124 was a low-achiever who failed four of the memory items on the Binet and all of the tests at Superior Adult III level. A tenth-grade boy earned an Iowa scaled score of 30 but had an Otis IQ of only 117. His Binet IQ of 135 was more in conformity with his Iowa score and with the judgment of his teachers, who consider him highly gifted. A twelfth-grade girl whose Iowa score was 32 had an Otis IQ of 122 and a Binet of 143. Further corroboration of her high ability is the fact that her score on the National Merit Test was the second highest in the school and was among the top 2 per cent in the nation. The inference to be drawn, then, is that

the scores earned by students on the Iowa tests may be a better indication of their "true" potential than are the IQ's obtained on Otis group tests of intelligence.

## Conclusions Formulated

As a result of this study the following conclusions were formulated, based on the data available:

1. The IQ's obtained on the Stanford-Binet individual intelligence test were generally higher than those obtained on the Otis group test.
2. The Stanford-Binet IQ's were a more accurate estimate of the students' potential than were the Otis IQ's.
3. Scores at or above the 90th percentile on the Iowa Tests of Educational Development also provide a more accurate estimate of the students' potential than do Otis IQ's.

## Recommendations

1. All teachers should understand the discrepancies between IQ's obtained from different intelligence tests.
2. No child should be "pigeonholed" on the basis of IQ's obtained from group tests.
3. Wider use should be made of individual intelligence tests.

There is merit in the conclusion of a Connecticut superintendent of schools who said, "*If I had to give up every other special service—music, art, anything—individual testing is the one I would keep. It is invaluable both for the students and for their parents*" (6:13).

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### DATES TO NOTE

The California Advisory Council on Educational Research announced at its regular meeting in San Diego on January 27 that the Thirteenth Annual Research Conference will be held at the Ambassador Hotel in Los Angeles on November 3 and 4, 1961. The theme for the conference will be "Research for Educational Planning," and plans call for experts to explore research problems in organization, student services, school operations, personnel programs, curriculum services, and business services. Dr. William H. Stegeman, Director of Research, San Diego Unified School District, has been named as Program Chairman. Last year's conference, held at the Villa Hotel in San Mateo on "Basic Techniques in School Research," had over 250 in attendance, and was considered very valuable. This year's meeting promises to be equally as instructive, and educators are urged to reserve the November dates.

## Job Placement Services for High School Business Education Graduates

LOUISE B. REED

An evaluation of guidance services usually raises certain questions regarding the quality and kinds of programs provided students. There is general agreement, for instance, that there should be programs to identify students with special needs, to motivate under-achievers, to prevent early school leaving. However, there is no general agreement that career placement services should be provided. National and state surveys have shown that less than one-fourth of our public schools provide adequate placement services. Some of those schools which provide no services contend that it is not the responsibility of the high school to provide career placement services, while others are of the opinion that they should, but are unable to provide them.

For approximately eleven years the Long Beach Schools' Placement Office had provided career placement services for junior college students. However, no systematic attempt was made to counsel or screen student applicants or to secure appropriate job stations for high school students. The placement office sought to determine the interest of students and employers regarding placement services, and also to experiment with a planned program to determine if placement services should be extended to high school graduates as well as junior college students.

An analysis of the experience with terminal high school graduates revealed fewer applicants and placements than one would expect as compared with the junior college students. It was assumed that this condition was due to the following problems experienced by younger job applicants:

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1. High school students have great difficulty in securing employment for two reasons: Many prospective employers consider youth immature; many high school students graduate with few employable skills.
2. They frequently do not know how to apply for a job.
3. They do not know where to look for jobs.
4. Because of their anxiety they often take the first opportunity without considering working conditions and promotional opportunities.
5. Many students enter jobs that are inappropriate to their level of ability and interest.
6. The employer fears the higher turn-over rate of young women as contrasted with that of young men.

Could placement services be improved for the high school graduate entering the labor market? The writer sought to determine if systematic and concentrated counseling could increase the chances of job placement. As a pilot study it sought to compare the results of a counseled group of high school female business education majors with an uncounseled group.

## Project Procedures

The largest of five high schools in the district was selected for the study because it would have a sufficient number of female business education majors to provide a control group and an experimental group of adequate size. The Placement Office selected 12th grade students who were to graduate two months later who had expressed a desire to enter the labor market even though teachers and counselors believed that some of them should continue their education. An additional criterion was one or more of the following employable skills: typing 50 words or better per minute; shorthand of at least 80 to 100 words per minute; and/or training in the use of book-keeping or office machines.

The high school business education teachers screened and selected the students who met the criteria for selection, supervised the filling out of placement office job application forms, wrote the confidential recommendations, and set up the interviewing schedule for the placement counselor. The Placement Office counselor, working with the experimental group, interviewed students to identify (a) those who qualified for immediate employment, (b) those who needed additional vocational training, or (c) those who had college ability and should consider continuing their education rather than entering the labor market. She also attempted to acquaint applicants with labor market conditions and to counsel them on application techniques, grooming, and attitudes toward work. In addition, she consulted with teachers, counselors, parents, and other appropriate people on special cases,

compiled a list of prospective employers, scheduled job interviews for applicants, and followed up applicants in order to evaluate the project and report back to the school. The cooperation of the administration and staff of the participating school was secured and procedures set up as described above.

Approximately 200 employers from the files of the school placement office were contacted by letter to acquaint them with the project, and the cooperation of other employers was solicited through newspaper publicity.

A group of 86 students was selected, the first 43 of whom were placed in the experimental group. The experimental group differed from the control group in that the former received the services of the placement counselor and the control group did not. Both groups were followed up six months later to determine if there were any significant differences between them.

## Findings

A follow-up study of the original 86 students was conducted six months after graduation. Results are reported in Table I.

1. It was found that 34 of the experimental group were employed as compared with 21 of the control group. This difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence. It is interesting to note that 10 of the 21 employed

TABLE I  
Status of Experimental and Control Groups

Placements	EXPERIMENTAL(43)		CONTROL(43)	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
By placement counselor	25	58	0	0
On own	7	16	3	7
Placement by teacher or Civil Service	2	5	2	5
By others	0	0	3	7
By employment agencies	0	0	3	7
By placement counselor (during follow-up period)	0	0	10	23
In School				
Long Beach City College (Business & Technology Division)	4	9	4	9
Long Beach City College (Liberal Arts Division)	2	5	4	9
Unemployed	1	2	9	21
Married	2	5	2	5
Unknown	0	0	3	7

in the control group were placed by the placement counselor. Some of the 10 in the control group, placed by the counselor, had tried for several months to secure work on their own. Others were found by the placement counselor during the follow-up phase of the study to be employed on jobs of lower level than their training had qualified them for. They were invited to avail themselves of the services of the placement counselor. Therefore, only 11 of the control group secured employment without the assistance of the placement counselor. The difference between the 11 in the control group and the 25 in the experimental group placed by the counselor shows a significant difference far beyond the .01 level.

2. Of the original group of 86, 14 continued their education. The 6 in the experimental group were counseled to continue their education because they needed more skill training, or they realized that they were qualified for higher education. It is not known on what basis the 8 students in the control group decided to continue their education.

3. Another significant part of the study shows that only one of the experimental group was unemployed, as contrasted with 9 in the control group.

4. A summary of the activities of the placement counselor in working with the 43 students in the experimental group revealed that 109 contacts were made either in person or by telephone: 56 contacts with students, 47 with employers, and 6 with parents.

5. Results of this study indicate that high school graduates can be satisfactorily placed. However, they need much personal guidance and help with job-getting techniques.

6. Experience with the control group demonstrates the need for more emphasis on orienting students to placement services.

7. Employers are not generally amenable to hiring high school graduates. However, the counselor was able to reassure the employer that the applicants were well trained and screened. Employers were generally impressed with the following information supplied through the school placement counselor:

- (a) Interpretation of standardized test scores.
- (b) Confidential reports from teachers.
- (c) Participation in extra-curricular activities.
- (d) The degree of poise and maturity.
- (e) Achievement in clerical skills and a record of school subjects and grades.

## Conclusions

1. Students' scores on performance and standardized tests should be included on placement office application forms. The counselor found that these data were needed in counseling job applicants. Some employers needed the reassurance of test scores to convince them that the applicants were qualified.

2. The program should be extended to all high schools in the district. The results of the study gave significant indication that both students and employers benefited from systematic screening and counseling services.

3. Placement services should be publicized to all graduates. It may be assumed that many high school students are unaware of the school's placement services as evidenced by the fact that no one from the control group sought the services of the placement office.

4. The success of this project with business education majors would indicate that the school should examine the possibility of extending placement services to terminal students with employable skills in other areas.

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The CTA Research Department reports the most recent publications in its Research Bulletin series . . . No. 133, *Staffing Ratios in California Elementary Schools* (a report of a study conducted by the California Teachers Association, the California Association of School Administrators, the California Elementary School Administrators Association, and the State Department of Education); No. 134, *Administrative Salary Policies*; No. 135, *Policies and Practices Related to Salaries*; No. 136, *Salaries and Salary Schedules for 1960-1961*; No. 137, *Personnel Policies and Practices*; No. 138, *County Office Salaries and Salary Schedules*; No. 139, *Summary of Salaries and Salary Schedules in California*; No. 140, *Administrative Salaries and Salary Schedules for School Personnel*; and No. 141, *Central Office Personnel Administrative Salaries and Salary Schedules*.

Two recent publications in the Research Resume series have also been released: No. 15, *Teacher Load in California Public Junior Colleges*, and No. 16, *Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual State Conference on Educational Research*.



# Mexican-Americans in Urban Public Schools

## An Exploration of the Drop-out Problem

PAUL M. SHELDON

Mexican-Americans<sup>1</sup> in Southern California are under-represented in the higher levels of education and in the professions (6). Analysis of 1950 census data showed that the median number of school years completed by members of the population with Spanish surnames was 8.3 as compared with 12 years for the general population (3).

The present study was made possible by a grant from the Rosenberg Foundation of San Francisco to the Laboratory in Urban Research, Occidental College. The purpose was to explore the factors influencing Mexican-Americans in relation to their high school experience in an urban setting; to test the hypothesis of proportionately excessive dropouts; and to isolate and examine the associated factors.

The hypotheses on which the investigation was based were taken from previous studies of the general problem of dropouts (5); studies of Mexican-American communities (1,4,7,8); and from pilot interviews.

### Description of Study Area

The subjects of the investigation were the students who left three Los Angeles public senior high schools for any reason (including graduation) during the four-semester period from February 1955 to February 1957. The schools were selected with the advice of school administrators on the basis of estimated per cent of Mexican student population, with the following results:

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<sup>1</sup>For the purposes of this study, "Mexican-American" was defined as a person of Mexican descent living in the United States, as distinguished from members of other Spanish-speaking groups.

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**School A:** 75 per cent Mexican-American; 10 per cent Negro; 10 per cent Oriental; and 5 per cent "Anglo." Size of student body: 1700, plus about 100 "continuation" students. Located in an area of highest population density and lowest social rank. High concentration of minority groups, principally Mexican-American. Serves population of 18 census tracts.

**School B:** 25 per cent Mexican-American; 70 per cent "Anglo"; a few Orientals; no Negroes. Size of student body: 800, plus 1100 in the junior high school. Located in a dominantly "Anglo" area in northeast Los Angeles of less than average population density and second-quarter social rank. Displastic ethnic picture since Mexican students come largely from two census tracts bordering a freeway, with higher population density and lowest social rank. Serves population of seven census tracts. Population density is increasing as people move out from central areas.

**School C:** 35 per cent Mexican-American; remainder predominately "Anglo," with appreciable number of Filipinos and other Orientals; some Negroes, Indians, and other ethnic groups. Size of student body: 1400, plus 600 foreign-speaking students and also large night and commercial schools. Serves large, highly urbanized area in Central Los Angeles which is so widely scattered geographically and in social rank that it is difficult to isolate a central tendency. Social rank ranges from the 90th to the second percentile.<sup>2</sup> Serves population of 50 census tracts.

The sample consisted of students enrolled in the regular daytime program in each school. There were 2,062 students in the total sample, of whom 947 were of Mexican descent, with equal representation of boys and girls.

TABLE I

	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Mexican	482	23.39	465	22.56	947	45.95
Other	549	26.61	566	27.44	1115	54.05
Total	1031	50.00	1031	50.00	2062	100.00

The cumulative school record folders for each of the 2,062 subjects were examined and a total of 30 items abstracted on coded master sheets. These

<sup>2</sup>Social rank in School C was only slightly higher than in the other two schools, since the families living in areas of higher social rank were largely apartment dwellers with few children who patronized private schools.

were machine processed and the results tabulated and analyzed. The findings were taken from these quantitative data.

The term "dropout" was defined as including all students who left school for any reason other than transfer to another school or graduation. By interpretation of the compulsory school law, students in the Los Angeles area may leave school after their sixteenth birthday, although in other parts of the state they must remain until they are eighteen.

## Findings from Preliminary Analysis of Data

1. **Socio-Economic Status as a Major Correlate of Dropouts.** In the Los Angeles area it is difficult to find a school serving a population of above average socio-economic status which also has a significant proportion of Mexican-American students. However, there are general differences in the central tendencies of each of the three schools studied.

To discover these differences each census tract in each school district was analyzed on the basis of income, education, population density (total population per acre and youth population per acre), population movement, minority groups, nature of dwellings, average rent, unattached persons, and home ownership (2).

A comparison of the patterns of School A, with high urbanization and extremely low social rank; and School B, much less highly urbanized and with significantly higher socio-economic status, shows that in School A only 40.4 per cent of the sample graduated as compared with 68.2 per cent in School B. The rate for School C, where social rank falls between these extremes, was 61.5 per cent; and for the total sample it was 52.2 per cent graduated.

TABLE II  
Number and Per Cent of Sample Graduated

<i>School</i>	<i>Socio-Economic Status</i>	<i>Number in Sample</i>	<i>Graduates</i>	<i>Percentage Graduating</i>
A	Lowest Quarter	987	399	40.4
B	Second Quarter	192	131	68.2
C	Mixed	883	543	61.5
Total Sample		2062	1073	52.2

Analysis of occupational data from the school records of 652 Mexican students also showed a difference in the ranking<sup>3</sup> of the supporting parent.

<sup>3</sup>Based on "Occupational Ratings for the Index of Status Characteristics," an occupational rating scale developed by Raymond Murphy, University of California at Los Angeles.

On the basis of occupational ratings of the supporting parent the students who dropped out tended to come from families in which the parent held a job having low situs and status according to the Murphy Occupational Rating Scale and also according to standards developed from census tract data.

Mexican-American parents had lower socio-economic ratings than did non-Mexicans. The school district with the highest percentage of Mexican-American students had the lowest socio-economic status, according to census tract data.

**2. Ethnicity.** There was a higher proportion of Mexican than of non-Mexican dropouts. Of the 2,062 subjects investigated, 499, or 24.35 per cent, were dropouts. Of the 947 Mexicans, 297, or 31.4 per cent, dropped out as compared with 205, or 18.38 per cent, of the non-Mexicans.

Analysis of data for each school revealed significant differences.

The hypothesis was also supported by an ethnic breakdown of the total sample which showed that, of the five ethnic groups making up the bulk of the sample, the Mexican students had the highest proportion of dropouts; and that only the Mexicans and the Negroes had percentages higher than their proportion of the total population.

**3. Population Dominance.** There was more turnover and dropping out in the dominately Mexican-American school.

It will be interesting to observe, over the next few years, whether the turnover rate in School B increases, as the proportion of Mexican-Americans in the school is increasing.

**4. Differences by Sex.** Contrary to popular opinion, there was no significant difference between the rate of dropout of Mexican boys and girls for the total sample.

**5. Behavior Ratings by Teachers.** Teacher behavior ratings on the Cumulative Record cards were checked for correlation with dropping out. Typical items considered were "Work Habits" and "Cooperation." Of the 684 Mexican students for whom ratings were recorded, the 24 per cent who were dropouts accounted for 62 per cent of the lowest or "Unsatisfactory" ratings and 53 per cent of the second lowest; but only 25 per cent of the average, or "Satisfactory" ratings. All of the students receiving predominately "Unsatisfactory" ratings either dropped out or "transferred," this latter in many cases being simply an informal dropout.

## Unanticipated Findings

1. Observations by the coding staff and investigation of the data indicate that there was a comparative paucity of information in the Cumulative School Record folders of the Mexican-American dropouts. While this is at least partially attributable to length of time in school, when it is added to

TABLE III  
Analysis of Data by Ranking of Parents

	<i>Dropouts</i>	<i>Transfers</i>	<i>Graduates</i>	<i>Total Sample</i>
Upper	.6%	2.0%	1.5%	1.4%
Middle	39.0	42.1	49.1	45.0
Low	55.5	46.8	45.5	48.2
Unemployed	4.9	9.1	3.9	5.4
Total Sample	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number	164	152	336	652

TABLE IV  
Mexican and Non-Mexican Dropouts Compared

<i>Dropouts</i>	<i>Total Sample N = 2062</i>	<i>Mexican N = 947</i>	<i>Non-Mexican N = 1115</i>
Number	499	297	205
Per cent	24.35	31.04	18.38

TABLE V  
Percentage of Dropouts, Transfers and Graduates  
Compared by School

<i>School</i>	<i>Total Sample</i>	<i>Per Cent Mexican</i>	<i>Per Cent Dropouts</i>	<i>Per Cent Transfers</i>	<i>Per Cent Graduates</i>
A	(987)	(62.25)	25.9	33.2	40.9 = 100
B	(192)	(27.08)	16.7	15.1	68.2 = 100
C	(883)	(28.43)	24.9	13.6	61.5 = 100
Total	(2062)	(45.95)	24.4	23.0	52.6 = 100

TABLE VI  
Teacher Behavior Ratings for 684 Mexican Students

Numerical Breakdown by Reason for Leaving School:								
	<i>Sample</i>		<i>Ratings</i>					<i>Total</i>
	<i>No.</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>1 (Unsat.)</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3 (Satis.)</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5 (Excel.)</i>	
Dropouts	166	(24.27)	31	47	65	21	2	166
Transfers	124	(18.13)	19	23	50	28	4	124
Graduates	394	(57.60)	0	18	150	187	39	394
Total	684	(100.00)	50	88	265	236	45	684

the finding of lower behavior ratings for Mexican-American students than for those of other ethnic groups, it raises a question about the attitude toward them in the schools as to pre-judging or early labeling.

2. Some of the richest data, qualitatively, were found in the records of the school health nurse in the Cumulative School Record folders. This led to a revision of the interview program to include further exploration into its significance.

3. There is a surprisingly large proportion of school transfers in the sample. Interviews with school officials indicate that this has a significance beyond mobility of population, i.e., that it is one type of dropping out; but that they have not as yet been able to measure its full extent or significance. It is hoped that further exploration will be possible.

## Summary

The portions of the data analyzed to date indicate that Mexican-American senior high school students of Los Angeles are more likely to drop out than are students of other ethnic groups. Areas of low socio-economic status furnish a disproportionately higher number and percentage of students who drop out. Differences between male and female dropout rates are not significant. The students who dropped out or transferred tended to have low ("Unsatisfactory") ratings by teachers on scales of behavior. Population dominance may be an important factor. Mexican-Americans are more likely to stay in school in the areas where other groups represent a majority. The influence of the students' peer groups remains to be investigated.

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# Comparing Reading Competency With Personality and Social Insight Test Scores

RUSSELL N. CASSEL AND GENEVIEVE HADDOX

Numerous studies have emphasized the significant relationship between the failure of students to develop effective reading competency and the presence of faulty personal and interpersonal relationships in their case history (1,2,4,9). An unpublished study evaluating the qualifications of approximately 400 high school students referred for psychological study and consultation purposes for the two-year period 1957-59 in Phoenix, Arizona, indicates that six out of every ten referrals scored significantly below grade in terms of reading test scores.

It is common knowledge among correctional psychologists that a great preponderance of juvenile delinquents are considerably below grade in terms of the effectiveness of formal school experiences, and especially in the reading competency area (3,6). During the present school year the New York City Board of Education is conducting remedial reading classes as a basic step in the educational therapy of offenders (3).

Recent research strongly supports the theory that an effective program for remedial reading should incorporate three separate and independently organized considerations:

- . . . procedural—traditional instructional techniques including visual and auditory analyses, phonetics, and word recognition (1,14);
- . . . psychological—disturbed personal and interpersonal relationships (2,4,9); and
- . . . perceptual—disturbances in perceptual, maturational, and physiological development (4,10,11,13).

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*Genevieve Haddox has been a counselor in the Carl Hayden High School, Phoenix, Arizona, for four years. Her former experience includes two years' teaching in elementary school, one year of high school remedial teaching, and one year of high school English teaching. Mrs. Haddox, who obtained her M.A. degree in 1958 from Fresno State College, is currently enrolled in the doctoral program at Arizona State University.*



## Study Objective

This study was concerned with assessing the relationship between certain personal and social dynamics and the present level of reading competency, both of which are measured by standardized group tests, for 200 9th grade students in two of the high schools in Phoenix, Arizona.

The principal objective of the study was to evaluate a select personality and social insight test as a means for diagnosing remedial reading problems among high school students.

The subjects were selected from available citizenship classes in the Carl Hayden and West High Schools in Phoenix, Arizona, for the 1958-59 school year. They were about equally divided by sex, and ranged in age from 13 to 17 years with a mean age of 14.42 and with a standard deviation (SD) of 0.58. In terms of intellectual capability as measured by the California Test of Mental Maturity (CTMM), 1957 Short Form, total mental factor I.Q., they ranged from 85 to 125 with a mean of 106.26 and a S.D. of 10.32.

## Tests Utilized

**Personality Tension and Needs.** The Group Personality Projective Test (CTMM) by R. Cassel and T. Kahn was utilized (8). The vocabulary of the various items is at about the 5th grade level of difficulty, and the part scores are based on factorial validity. Two different scores from this test were utilized: (1) part I—tension reduction quotient, and (2) total score—mental health, or an index that discerns significantly between neuropsychiatric and typical individuals.

**Social Insight.** The Test of Social Insight by R. Cassel (5) was used. Only the total score on this test was utilized, and it discerns significantly between in-prison and typical individuals. It represents the level of social insight present.

**Grade Point Average.** This is the mean average of the "solid" high school subjects taken during the first semester of the 9th grade in two referenced Phoenix high schools, i.e., an "A" is represented by a numerical value of 1, a "B" by 2, a "C" by 3, etc. The word "solid" indicates that physical education and other similar courses were not included in the averaging.

**The Iowa Tests of Educational Development.** Two different scores from this battery of tests were utilized: (1) Interpretation of Social Studies, and (2) Total battery score. Both of these scores were in terms of a "stanine," with nine being high and one being low. The Interpretation of Social Studies score was utilized because in another study this score had the highest factorial loading on the reading scores cluster (7).



## Findings

The findings for this study are contained in Table I. Scores from both the Group Personality Projective Test (GPPT) total score, and the Test of Social Insight—total score are significantly related to: (1) level of reading competency, (2) total educational development, and (3) grade point average, as represented by referenced test scores and grade data. Generally, individuals having personality test scores indicative of emotional disturbance, and social insight test score indicative of poor social insight tend to have lower (poorer) scores on the ITED interpretation of social studies and the total score on the ITED; also, less adequate grade point averages in terms of teacher marks for solid subjects.

TABLE I  
Intercorrelations of Test Scores<sup>1</sup> and Grade Point Average

GPA and Test Scores	TSI total score	Grade point average	Reading social studies	Total educ. develop.	(N = 200) Mean SD	
Group Personality Projective Test:						
TRQ (tension)	** .184	* .143	.110	* .164	31.72	14.40
Total needs	** .257	** .319	** .352	** .209	41.97	15.45
Test of Social Insight:						
Total score		** .310	** .206	** .256	20.00	7.62
Grade Point Averages:						
1st semester						
9th grade			** .541	** .493	2.61	0.75
Iowa Tests of Educational Development:						
Readings in soc. studies				** .793	5.90	1.83
Total educ. development					5.88	1.54

<sup>1</sup>Pearson correlation indexes, and with signs corrected to indicate actual direction.

\*r's of .138 and better are statistically significant at 5 per cent level.

\*\*r's of .181 and better are significant at 1 per cent level.

## Conclusions and Summary

This study was concerned with assessing the relationship between scores on a personality tension and needs test and a social insight test, and reading

competency and total educational development test scores, and with grade point averages. Statistically significant relationships were obtained between both the total score on the Group Personality Projective Test, and the Test of Social Insight—total score; and the Interpretation of Social Studies and total score on the Iowa Tests of Educational Development. This study suggests that these two tests may be used effectively for determining the presence of undesirable personality and social insight dynamics which might interfere with effective learning of reading skills and educational development. Similarly, such test data might be used effectively for planning the elimination or modification of such undesirable personality or social insight patterns.

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# Development of a School Policy on Discipline

BRUCE M. CRAWFORD AND E. ROSS HARRINGTON

Recent legislation has required California school districts to formulate written policies on discipline. It is important for these policies to reflect the carefully considered opinions of the professional staff. Any policy which runs contrary to the beliefs of the teachers will likely suffer.

In 1957 the staff of the Richland Elementary School District in Shafter, California, began a study of their beliefs on discipline.

A series of meetings was held with the teachers of each grade group. There were about eight teachers in each grade group, so the meetings were small and informal, with each teacher free to contribute his ideas.

The Director of Education met with each group and recorded the statements made by the members of the group.

After the Director of Education had completed meeting with the nine grade groups, kindergarten through eighth grade, he compiled all the statements recorded in the grade group meetings.

A second meeting was then held with each of the nine grade groups. At this second meeting each of the recorded statements was read and discussed by the teachers of each grade group.

At the end of the second series of grade group meetings, 89 statements on discipline had been recorded and discussed. These 89 statements were then put into questionnaire form and the entire staff completed the questionnaire anonymously. The teachers were asked to indicate whether they generally agreed or generally disagreed with the statement on discipline.

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*E. Ross Harrington has been superintendent of the Taft City School District since July 1959. He was formerly assistant superintendent and director of education in the same district (1957-59), director of education, Richland School District, Shafter (1952-57), and head of the department of education and associate professor at Chapman College (1949-52). Currently a candidate for the doctor of education degree at the University of Southern California, Mr. Harrington obtained his M.S. degree in education from that university in 1948.*

If they were undecided, they were asked to indicate that fact. The responses to the questionnaire were tabulated and arranged in rank order of agreement. The following items represent a selection of items from the questionnaire.<sup>1</sup>

		Unde- Agree	Disa- cided	gree
1. In any case of discipline where there is apt to be parental inquiry or question, it strengthens the position of the school and protects the teachers if the administration has the facts in advance of the parental inquiry.	No. 65 Pctg. 100	0 0	0 0	
2. A good disciplinarian is consistent, polite, but firm.	No. 65 Pctg. 100	0 0	0 0	
3. A child should be praised when he does good work for a person of his ability.	No. 65 Pctg. 100	0 0	0 0	
4. Special attempts should be made to acquaint new pupils with the other children of the class. Also new pupils must become acquainted with room standards of behavior.	No. 65 Pctg. 100	0 0	0 0	
5. When a child has consistently misbehaved, it is wise to have a conference with the child's parents.	No. 65 Pctg. 100	0 0	0 0	
6. Children should know what's expected of them.	No. 64 Pctg. 98	1 2	0 0	
7. Expect good behavior from children.	No. 64 Pctg. 98	1 2	0 0	
8. The classroom should be maintained as a good working place for children—quiet and orderly enough for them to work.	No. 64 Pctg. 98	1 2	0 0	
9. Seek the cause or reason for a child's misbehavior. Try to see it from the child's point of view.	No. 64 Pctg. 98	0 0	1 2	
10. To avoid classroom discipline problems, keep children busily engaged in worthwhile and interesting learning activities.	No. 64 Pctg. 98	0 0	1 2	
11. Children must learn there are some things we have to do whether we like it or not.	No. 63 Pctg. 97	2 3	0 0	
12. A good disciplinarian should be sympathetic and understanding.	No. 63 Pctg. 97	2 3	0 0	
13. Establishing and following a daily routine is an important aspect of good classroom control.	No. 63 Pctg. 97	2 3	0 0	
14. When a class has had a particularly good day, praise the entire group.	No. 63 Pctg. 97	2 3	0 0	

<sup>1</sup>A copy of the complete tabulation can be obtained from the authors.

15. Children like and appreciate a well-disciplined room.	No.	63	2	0
	Pctg.	97	3	0
16. The goal toward which we are working is self-discipline which is essential in a democracy.	No.	63	2	0
	Pctg.	97	3	0
17. A child must always know why he is being disciplined.	No.	63	2	0
	Pctg.	97	3	0
18. In enforcing rules, be fair. A rule for one is a rule for all.	No.	63	2	0
	Pctg.	97	3	0
19. Children should know the reason for rules.	No.	62	3	0
	Pctg.	95	5	0
20. Teachers should not allow children to call them by their first names or nicknames. Don't let children get too familiar.	No.	62	3	0
	Pctg.	95	5	0
21. A child should never be hit on the head.	No.	62	3	0
	Pctg.	95	5	0
22. Always have an adult witness when administering corporal punishment.	No.	62	3	0
	Pctg.	95	5	0
23. Children should be taught to respect authority.	No.	62	2	1
	Pctg.	95	3	2
24. Every teacher has discipline problems at some time or other.	No.	62	2	1
	Pctg.	95	3	2
25. By developing pride in the room, the teacher can prevent many disciplinary situations from arising.	No.	62	2	1
	Pctg.	95	3	2
.....				
36. Don't feel you have to punish every minor offense. Sometimes it's wise to overlook some minor offense.	No.	60	5	0
	Pctg.	92	8	0
37. Having well planned lessons will prevent many disciplinary situations from arising.	No.	60	4	1
	Pctg.	92	6	2
38. Within limits, children should have some say about what the classroom rules of behavior should be.	No.	60	4	1
	Pctg.	92	6	2
39. The teacher should recognize that in some cases of misbehavior, the child is just tired and needs a rest.	No.	60	4	1
	Pctg.	92	6	2
40. It is best to word rules positively, avoiding the don'ts if possible.	No.	60	3	2
	Pctg.	92	5	3
.....				
49. Sarcasm should not be used in the classroom.	No.	58	5	2
	Pctg.	89	8	3
50. Children like a teacher who is a good disciplinarian.	No.	57	8	0
	Pctg.	88	12	0
.....				
56. Suspending or expelling a child from school is only to be used as a last resort.	No.	57	4	4
	Pctg.	88	6	6
57. The key to good discipline is to prevent disciplinary problems from arising.	No.	57	2	6
	Pctg.	88	3	9

58. Corporal punishment should be used only when other disciplinary methods have failed.	No.	56	7	2
.....	Pctg.	86	11	3
67. Forcing a child to apologize is a poor disciplinary procedure.	No.	48	9	8
.....	Pctg.	74	14	12
68. When a teacher is at his wits' end in trying to solve a disciplinary problem, he should send the child to the principal following up with a personal conference with the principal at the first opportunity.	No.	46	11	8
.....	Pctg.	71	17	12
69. Where property damage has resulted from a child's misbehavior, making the child pay for its repair is a good disciplinary measure.	No.	45	15	5
.....	Pctg.	69	23	8
85. Sometimes a special treat like cookies may be given to a class following a particularly "good day."	No.	11	19	35
.....	Pctg.	17	29	54
86. Children who misbehave should be kept after school for punishment.	No.	10	20	35
.....	Pctg.	15	31	54
87. Award little pins to the children who are outstanding for their good behavior.	No.	9	11	45
.....	Pctg.	14	17	69
88. If a child is too noisy while walking to the cafeteria, send him back to his room.	No.	8	21	36
.....	Pctg.	12	32	56
89. Let children choose monitors each week for the purpose of handling simple discipline and class control.	No.	6	16	43
.....	Pctg.	9	25	66

The results of the questionnaire were studied and from it emerged a set of guidelines on discipline. These guidelines were discussed at length with the administrative staff and finally presented by the superintendent to the Board of Trustees for adoption as a policy for the district.

The policy as adopted follows:

### Guidelines on Discipline

Good discipline is founded on an adequate curriculum that is interesting and challenging to the children, a well-organized classroom that meets the needs of individual children, and the teacher's awareness of the growth and developmental patterns of children of that age.

The teacher is the first line of responsibility in teaching children good discipline, but development, enforcement, and surveillance of good discipline is the responsibility of ALL school personnel, both classified and certificated. The maintenance of good discipline cuts across the lines of classroom responsibility, position, or job description.

Frequent or general disciplinary problems indicate a need for attention to, and evaluation of, classroom practices. Discipline is something that

must be taught. It is the formation of good behavior traits. It starts with external control and works toward judgment and self-control as the child matures.

Children appreciate a well-disciplined room and the security of knowing all are going to be held to room standards. Pride in their ability to be responsible for their own behavior is often the strongest asset to securing good discipline.

1. An orderly and purposeful classroom without distracting noise provides an effective working area where children are least apt to develop discipline problems.
2. Children should know what is expected of them and good behavior should be expected. Children must learn that there are some things to be done whether they like it or not.
3. A good disciplinarian is consistent, polite, and firm, curbing misbehavior when it occurs, and generous with praise for good work or acts.
4. The teacher should seek to understand the reasons for a child's misbehavior, and to look at the problem from the child's viewpoint. When a child consistently misbehaves, it is desirable to confer with the principal to determine what steps need to be taken. The school has many resources to help teachers work toward solution of these problems.
5. Have a definite program to acquaint the new pupil with the other children. Give him a feeling of being a wanted member of the class. Acquaint him with room standards, school rules, and general procedures.
6. Establishing and following a daily routine minimizes uncertainty and confusion which easily leads to discipline problems.
7. A good teacher should be sympathetic and understanding of a child's problems. Fairness in enforcing rules is of prime importance to children.
8. Good discipline is easier and better when the child knows the reasons for the rules, and why he is being disciplined. Children like and appreciate a well-disciplined room.
9. Basic to good discipline is respect. Teachers should not allow children to call them by first names or nicknames. Children should be required to use the proper title in speaking of other teachers. Referring to a teacher by his last name only should not be allowed.
10. Teachers should curb misbehavior whenever and wherever it occurs, without regard to room or grade of the child.
11. It is not necessary to punish every offense. Sometimes it is wise not to see some minor infractions.

12. Punishment of an entire class has limited value. It is apt to cause resentment of those not guilty and lead to greater misbehavior. The teacher should, however, show definite disapproval when the situation warrants.

13. Rules and regulations are best when worded positively. Avoid the "don'ts" if possible.

14. Encouragement and praise are usually stronger forces than disapproval in developing good discipline, and a sense of humor will occasionally prevent a minor infraction from becoming a serious discipline problem.

15. Many factors such as weather, lack of ventilation, and over-stimulating activities affect discipline and must be taken into consideration.

16. Teachers need to protect their own health and vitality as a part of their obligation to the students. Discipline problems are apt to arise when the teacher is tired or "out-of-sorts."

17. Every teacher has many ways and many forms of discipline to fit the many and various needs of the classroom. Following are a few forms of discipline, the use of which is highly questionable:

- a. Punishing an entire class for the acts of one or a few is apt to cause resentment.
- b. Severe disciplining of a child in front of the entire class frequently fails to secure the proper reaction in the child and can sometimes alienate the entire class. Such discipline done privately is usually much more effective.
- c. Sarcasm is the poorest form of discipline. Children feel about the same as do adults when the target of sarcasm.
- d. Excluding a child from the room where the child is out of sight of the teacher is dangerous. If any accident or misfortune should occur to the child under such circumstances, the teacher would undoubtedly be held liable.
- e. The use of bribes for ordinary good conduct is undesirable.
- f. The use of student courts or judgment in place of teacher judgment is most hazardous. Students are apt to be extremely severe in their decisions. The teacher is the one legally in charge of the student, not his classmates.
- g. Any program that divides the class into groups on the basis of behavior is a negative rather than a positive approach.

18. Keeping a child after school may not be done if he rides a bus unless the teacher assumes the responsibility of delivering the child to his home. Parents MUST be notified in advance.



19. In cases of continued and/or willful disobedience, there are several resources to aid the teacher:

- a. A conference should be held with the principal. This may be with or without the child being present.
- b. The child may be sent to the office of the principal. In such cases the principal must be furnished full information prior to or at the time. Effective control is highly questionable if all information has to come from the child.
- c. If the teacher and principal, working together, do not secure adequate discipline, then a conference with the parent is definitely indicated.
- d. The Superintendent or Assistant Superintendent may be requested to aid.
- e. When other efforts to secure proper conduct fail, the principal may administer corporal punishment.
- f. When all other means to secure proper control fail, the Superintendent may suspend the student.
- g. The Board of Trustees may expel.

In any case of discipline where there is apt to be parental inquiry or question, it strengthens the position of the school and protects the teacher if the administration has the facts in advance of the parental inquiry.

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The annual spring conference of the California Research Association will be held on March 3 and 4 at Rickey's Studio Inn in Palo Alto. Researchers interested in presenting reports of studies may still be included on the program if they immediately contact Dr. John Caffrey, Director of Research, Palo Alto City Unified School District, who is serving as second vice-president of CERA. Dr. Walter T. Plant, San Jose State College, and secretary-treasurer of CERA, can supply other information relative to the meeting. Dr. Floyd Marchus, County Superintendent of Schools, Contra Costa County, is president of the association.

At 4:30 p.m. on March 3, at a meeting place which will be announced at the registration desk, there will be an organizational meeting of the Educational Data Processing Association. All persons involved or interested in non-accounting application of data processing in the schools are cordially invited to attend. For further information, address Dr. Caffrey.

# National Defense Education Act

## Title V-A

ILAH M. WILSTACH

Financial assistance for strengthening guidance, counseling, and testing services was made available to secondary schools under Title V-A of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. In 1959-60, 20 school districts and the Office of the Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles County, initiated 26 projects for which approximately \$202,000 in NDEA funds was allotted. The total cost of the projects was approximately \$350,000.

The federal funds represent about two-thirds of the cost of the projects. Half of the proposals were directly concerned with the improvement and/or expansion of guidance, counseling, and testing services. Other projects dealt with the improvement and/or expansion of the dissemination of educational and occupational information, evaluation of guidance services, in-service training programs for school personnel, provision of clerical help, improvement of group guidance procedures, proposals for career guidance, and systematic approaches to the collection and machine-processing of data on student populations.

More than half of the NDEA allocation was spent for professional staff services to secondary school students. The remaining funds were distributed to provide primarily for clerical assistance, occupational information, testing, and other materials.

By June 30, 1960, 24 proposals had been made by 20 school districts and the Office of Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles County, for the school year 1960-61. The estimated cost of these proposals in NDEA funds is \$250,000, an increase of about \$48,000 over 1959-60. More than 70 per cent of the 1960-61 money is budgeted for professional salaries. Provisions

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*Ilah M. Wilstach is the NDEA Consultant for the Los Angeles County Schools. His former experience includes that of high school counselor and teacher, college teacher, school psychologist, and psychological examiner in Juvenile Hall. Currently in the doctoral program at University of Southern California, Mr. Wilstach obtained his master's degree from that institution in 1957.*

for clerical assistance utilize about 20 per cent of the funds. The increased counseling time and clerical time will make possible an increase in effective counselor-student contacts.

NDEA funds have permitted a reduction in counseling loads and a more professional use of counseling time. There is greater emphasis on students with outstanding aptitudes and ability. There are trends toward more planned parent and student conferences, up-grading of testing programs, and utilization of test results, as well as new approaches to counseling and guidance. The latter approaches have resulted in variations in vocational and career guidance, multiple counseling, and coordination between individual and group guidance.

There is little doubt that the assistance provided by the National Defense Education Act, Title V-A, has stimulated the improvement of guidance, counseling, and testing services in secondary schools of Los Angeles County.

Types of Proposals:	No.
Improvement and/or expansion of guidance, counseling, and testing	13
Improvement and/or expansion of educational and occupational information	5
Evaluation of guidance service	3
Upgrading personnel	1
Provision of clerical help only	1
Upgrading group guidance procedures	1
Preparation of guide lines for career guidance unit	1
Preparation and use of pupil-accounting form	1
Ways of Implementing:	No.
Additional professional employees	11 full-time, 3 part-time
Additional testing materials	7
Additional occupational materials	5
Additional clerical assistance	5
Additional provisions for parent conferences	5
Formation of advisory committee	2
Employment of outside consultants	4
In-service training programs	3
Use of evaluation forms	3

## MEET YOUR CACER -- 6

*(This is the sixth of a series of biographical sketches of the members of the California Advisory Council on Educational Research.)*

It is perhaps trite to say that the name of Hugh Bell "rings a bell" with educators interested in the field of counseling and guidance. However, there are a number of reasons why this modest professor of psychology at Chico State College is so well-known. For one thing, he developed the "Bell Inventory." This instrument has been extremely popular, and over five million copies have been used by counselors. Further testimony to the Inventory's popularity is that it has been translated into seven languages. Dr. Bell is also known for his writings in learning, perception, and personnel procedures, and he has produced approximately fifty articles and monographs.

Although he is a native of Pennsylvania, he received his undergraduate degree at Willamette University and both his master's and doctorate in psychology at Stanford University. Dr. Bell has been on the staff at Chico State College since 1928, although he has taught summer sessions at the University of Minnesota, University of Maine, University of Denver, and the University of Oregon. He has been very active in professional organizations and has served as president of the California Educational Research Association, the California Psychological Association, and Division 17 of the American Psychological Association.

One of Dr. Bell's most interesting experiences is the tour of duty he had in World War II. He served as a Psychological Tester in an Induction Center, a psychological consultant for illiterates, and as a psychologist for the separation centers and programs. During the latter years of the war he was stationed in the Pentagon where his work entailed training of counselors for the separation centers, and prior to returning to Chico State, he worked with the Veterans' Administration.

Dr. Bell has a variety of other interests. He is an "amateur" musician and plays "a little violin and bass fiddle." He also sings in a church choir, and, just to show that he has high aesthetic values, has served on the Board of Directors for the local symphony orchestra. Dr. Bell handles a good golf club, as his opponents can attest. He claims to shoot in the 90's, but more often he is in the 80's. For his spare time Dr. Bell has purchased a little ranch in the mountains, and has released his tension by clearing the land.

Affable, skilled, diverse interests, competent, respected — these describe Hugh Bell. His presence on CACER is welcome.

## MEET YOUR CACER -- 7

*(This is the seventh of a series of biographical sketches of the members of the California Advisory Council on Educational Research.)*

**"Wanted:** Man to coordinate and direct largest state bureau of educational research. Man selected must be able to design, direct, and report educational research related to any educational problem. Personal qualifications include unusual ability to work with people, especially legislators. Should be able to anticipate questions which might arise prior to convening of legislature and have answers ready. Can substitute for this requirement ability to design and expedite research on short notice, but research must be accomplished with complete composure. However, research must be able to withstand minute scrutiny. Man should also possess wide variety of interests and specialties with a depth of understanding in school finance, salaries, personnel problems, class size, gifted children, and any other areas which might need investigation."

The above description is, of course, facetious, but it does partially describe the kind of position that is held by Henry W. Magnuson, Chief, Bureau of Education Research, California State Department of Education. The enormity of his position can be verified by noting just some of the positions he holds. For example, among other things, he is a member of the Commission on Credentials, the Governor's Interdepartmental Research Committee, the Trust Fund Committee, and the Senate Committee on Governmental reorganization. He also acts as a consultant to the CTA Finance Committee, the State's study of the gifted, and the emotionally handicapped. He has published numerous studies on evaluation of pupils' progress, enrollment, salaries, teacher load, and class size.

Henry Magnuson has been Chief of the Bureau of Education Research since 1946. Prior to that, he was Assistant Director of Training for the Eleventh Naval District. Earlier, he had served as Director of Research and principal of four schools in Oakland. He attended Reed College, received his A.B. from the University of Oregon, and earned both his master's and doctoral degrees from Stanford University. He is a Phi Beta Kappa and an active member of Phi Delta Kappa.

While not engaged in any of the above activities, he manages to do some fishing and golfing. He is a "fair fisherman," but, in his own words, a "hacker" at golf.

But, he has a "smooth swing" in coordinating and delivering research. CACER is extremely fortunate in having a man of Dr. Magnuson's stature to provide it with counsel and wisdom since its inception in 1950.

# Are Teachers Meeting the Reading Needs of the Gifted?

DAN CAPPA AND DELWYN G. SCHUBERT

Do teachers feel that they are making adequate provision for the reading needs of the gifted? Do they feel as comfortable when working with gifted children as with average children? How do they feel they can meet the reading needs of the gifted most adequately? Questions such as these prompted the authors to conduct the following investigation.

Over a period of several semesters the writers solicited 83 responses to questionnaires given to intermediate grade teachers from various schools and school districts in Southern California. Certain questions pertained, in each instance, to specific pupils the teachers had in their classrooms, whose I.Q.'s exceeded 130. The questions and teachers' answers are as follows:

1. Do you believe you are making adequate provision for this gifted child's reading development? Yes, 57; No, 22; no answer, 4.

If not, to what do you attribute this? (Some responses were multiple.) Lack of adequate training in this area, 3; lack of time, 9; inadequate facilities in the room, 15; others, 5.

2. In general, do you feel as comfortable in working with gifted children as with average children? Yes, 74; No, 3; no answer, 7.

3. How do you feel teachers most adequately can meet the reading

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*Dan Cappa is professor of education and head of the elementary education department of Los Angeles State College, a position he has held for five years. His previous experience includes that of director of elementary instruction in Santa Barbara City Schools, as well as 20 years of public school teaching at all levels, including supervisory and administrative experience at the elementary level. Dr. Cappa obtained his doctor of philosophy degree in 1953 from the University of California, Berkeley.*

*Delwyn Schubert has been serving for the past year and a half as coordinator of primary education and remedial reading for the United States Air Force Schools in Europe. Before taking this post he was at Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences for ten years. Dr. Schubert obtained his doctor of philosophy degree in 1949 from Northwestern University.*

needs of gifted children? (Sixteen teachers did not answer, while others gave multiple responses.)

Teachers Suggestions	Frequency
have a wide range of supplementary books	18
assign additional projects	12
acceleration	9
give special training to the teacher	6
challenge the gifted with activities	5
enrichment	5
give individual attention to the gifted	4
use better tests to show true ability	4
encourage use of reference books	4
give more reading	3
organize special groups	3
make special assignment	3
expect more from the gifted	3
have adequate supplies and materials	3
encourage more reading	2
organize a multiple reading program	1
understand the gifted child	1
have teachers prepare special assignments	1
have accelerated reading groups	1
have segregated classes	1
employ a special teacher	1
Total:	90

The answers to the first question show that a substantial number of the teachers (28 per cent) do not feel that they are providing adequately for the reading growth of the gifted children with whom they are concerned. To state it a different way, more than one out of every four children with an I.Q. above 130 is being taught by a teacher who admits not doing what is needed to bring about maximal reading development.

Of the 32 reasons given for this shortcoming, the statement "inadequate room facilities" enjoys greatest popularity. In this connection, more specificity would be desirable. But, undoubtedly, things such as a lack of supplementary books, special equipment, or insufficient space for grouping probably are involved. A negligible number of teachers say "don't have time," while others feel that "inadequate training" is responsible. Additional responses were volunteered by five teachers. One teacher said, "I don't have enough books," and four referred to "lack of adequate material."

Answers to question two show that practically all of the teachers in this sample (96 per cent) feel at ease when working with gifted children. Although slightly paradoxical, it is apparent that these teachers, many of whom did not believe (in question one) that they were meeting fully the reading needs of the gifted, feel comfortable when working with these same children.

When asked, in question three, how they could meet the reading needs of the gifted most adequately, their responses varied considerably. Close scrutiny, however, shows that the suggestions given cluster around a few major areas of concern.

The majority of the teachers' suggestions involve the concept of enrichment as a means of meeting the reading needs of these gifted children. This is evident from recommendations such as "have a wide range of supplementary books," "assign additional projects," "encourage use of reference books," "give more reading," and "make special assignments." From the relatively large number of teachers who suggested having a large range of supplementary books it is obvious that many of them see "free reading" or "individualized reading" as fruitful approaches to the problem.

About 10 per cent of the teachers mention "acceleration" as a solution to the problem of meeting reading needs while a few encourage setting up "segregated classes." There also are those who favor grouping as a means of individualizing the program for the gifted. Statements which pertain to grouping include "organize special groups," "organize a multiple reading program," and "have accelerated reading groups."

A few suggestions center around the need for refining methods of detecting and understanding the mentally gifted. Apropos in this regard are "use better tests to show true ability," "understand the gifted child," and "give individual attention to the gifted."

A small number of suggestions highlight the need for additional training to help teachers do a more competent job in teaching reading to the gifted. Such suggestions are "give special training to the teachers" and "employ a special teacher."

In summary, the authors found that more than one-fourth of the intermediate grade teachers in this investigation did not believe they were making adequate provision for the reading needs of the gifted. Almost without exception, however, they reported feeling as comfortable when working with gifted children as when working with average children. Suggestions made as to how teachers could meet the reading needs of gifted children varied. In general they involved, in order of frequency: (1) enrichment approaches, (2) acceleration, (3) grouping plans. Less frequent suggestions dealt with the need for better testing of the gifted and better training for reading teachers of the gifted.



# Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale In a Junior High Setting

ALLEN P. WEBB

Since the publication of Taylor's research (6, 7) with an adult test of manifest anxiety, numerous studies have been reported relating scores on this scale to various aspects of learning, conditioning, stress, and other clinical and experimental variables. The literature on the Taylor scale has been most recently reviewed by both Taylor (8) and Castaneda, McCandless, and Palermo (1). As a result of a felt need to study problems similar in nature to those studied with adults, a children's form of the manifest anxiety scale has been developed by Castaneda, McCandless, and Palermo, and normative data reported on fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children. Studies have now been reported on the children's scale (CMAS) in relationship to school achievement and intelligence (3), trial and error learning (5), sociometric status (4), and clinical anxiety (9, 2).

The present study was concerned with extending the range of study for the CMAS to the junior high school age population. This is a particularly appropriate area for such a study considering the paucity of research data pertaining to Hullian drive theory variables in the early adolescent.

An identical version of the CMAS as used by Castaneda, et al. (1), was employed in the present study. The scale was thus composed of 42 anxiety items and 11 lie-scale questions. There were no buffer items included. The test was administered to a sampling of 304 boys and girls in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades of two urban junior high schools. Although the population was predominantly Caucasian, approximately 15 per cent was of the Negro race. All tests were administered according to standard instructions read by the author. The scale was readministered one week

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later to 291 subjects from the original sampling. Thirteen boys and girls were eliminated from the retest because of absence.

Table I shows the means and standard deviations for the anxiety scale data. The mean of the total distribution was 17.12. For the girls the mean score was 18.66, while for boys the mean was 15.72. Analysis of the total distribution of scores reveals the same slight positive skewing noted by both Taylor with the adult scale and Castaneda, et al., with the CMAS.

TABLE I  
Anxiety Scale Means and SD by Grade Level and Sex

	7th Grade		8th Grade		9th Grade	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Boys	16.32	7.74	15.37	7.09	15.73	6.26
	(N=47)		(N=52)		(N=53)	
Girls	19.35	7.31	19.71	7.41	17.18	7.44
	(N=49)		(N=46)		(N=57)	

TABLE II  
Anxiety Scale Retest Correlations by Grade Level and Sex

	7th Grade	8th Grade	9th Grade
Boys	.88	.89	.93
	(N=44)	(N=48)	(N=52)
Girls	.90	.92	.90
	(N=47)	(N=45)	(N=55)

An analysis of variance performed on the data obtained in the first administration indicated significant sex differences (.05 level) in the direction of higher anxiety scores with girls. The effects of grade and the interaction of grade and sex were insignificant. Retest results are shown in Table II and indicate the consistency of the CMAS as a function of both sex and grade. Reliability coefficients ranged from .88 to .93. All coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level of confidence.

The tendency for girls to score slightly higher than boys on the lie scale was noted in the analysis of variance performed on the lie scale data. While the effects of grade were not significant, the sex differences were significant at the .05 level. In addition, there was an interaction effect between grade

and sex which was significant at the .01 level. Contributing to this effect was the markedly low mean lie score for ninth grade boys as compared with all other grade and sex groupings. Table III shows the means and standard deviations for the lie scale data. Reliability coefficients for the lie scale ranged from .65 to .78 (see Table IV). While all these coefficients were lower than those for the anxiety scale they nonetheless reached significance at the .01 level of confidence and would probably have been higher were there more items in the lie scale. These findings suggest that lie scale is a consistent measure.

TABLE III  
L Scale Means and SD by Grade Level and Sex

	7th Grade		8th Grade		9th Grade	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Boys	2.32 (N=47)	1.22	2.14 (N=52)	1.36	1.14 (N=53)	.94
Girls	2.71 (N=49)	1.48	1.93 (N=46)	1.20	2.04 (N=57)	1.17

TABLE IV  
L Scale Retest Correlations by Grade Level and Sex

	7th Grade	8th Grade	9th Grade
Boys	.68 (N=44)	.65 (N=48)	.78 (N=52)
Girls	.74 (N=47)	.66 (N=45)	.72 (N=55)

Correlations between the lie scale and the anxiety scale were not statistically significant and were principally of a low order negative nature. This was a desirable finding, since the lie scale's usefulness is measured by its identification of individuals who may falsify their responses and obtain spuriously high or low anxiety scores. The relationship between the anxiety scale and the Pintner General Ability Test, Intermediate, Form A, was also slightly negative (-.13), suggesting that intelligence plays a negligible role in influencing a subject's responses to the anxiety scale items.

The Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale appears to be an instrument

which could be used with profit in a junior high school setting. Further research is in order to learn if studies similar to those conducted with the adult scale would yield comparable results with a population of twelve- to fifteen-year-olds. Research is also necessary to determine what relationships may exist between the CMAS and other measures of anxiety and behavior disorders in the early adolescent age groups.

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